

MEND YOUR SPEECH





Similes And Their Use

By GRENVILLE KLEISER

Author of "Fifteen Thousand Useful Phrases"
"How to Build Mental Power," etc.

Every one is familiar with such common similes as "white as snow," "solid as a rock," "cold as ice," "proud as a peacock," "brave as a lion," etc., and all recognize the force and power which they give to speech and writing—yet these are only the most ordinary similes.

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MEND YOUR SPEECH

One Thousand Hints on Words
Their Use and Abuse

By

FRANK H. VIZETELLY, Litt.D., LL.D.

Managing Editor of The Funk & Wagnalls New Standard Dictionary and Its Abridgments; Author of Essentials of English Speech and Literature, etc.

"Mend your Speech lest it may mar your Fortune."— SHAKESPEARE, King Lear, act i. scene 1.



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INTRODUCTION

Words that are correctly spoken or written are frequently the paving-stones of the highway to social advancement and commercial success. But each stone must fit by the side of its neighbor, if one is to attain that level which forms the smooth sentence. Even as there are "misfits" in paving-stones, so also are there "misfits" in words. English spoken and written correctly is a desideratum in every walk of life. The business man whose speech does not rise above the quality of "I beat him to it": "He slipped one over on me"; "They couldn't deliver the goods," i.e., perform their promises; who "chews the rag" about "such a business" "sounding good to him"; who believes that he "said a mouthful" when he acquiesced with an "I'll say so," is calculated to "jar you" and is one who is not likely to rise himself.

Likewise, the woman of the "awfully nice" class, who adores lobster, wants it the worst way, but is not stuck on the place and would rather go some place else where the eats are better. might pass for a woman of refinement if she could keep her mouth shut until she had learned to say correctly what she has to say. There is also her companion, given to extravagances of speech as well as of dress that are exasperating for their exaggeration—the woman whose least malaise is an "agony"; to whom every slight mishap is "a fearful accident"; whose latest gown is "simply adorable," and whose favorite of the opposite sex is "awfully jolly." These are women who have such "an elegant time" that one might be forgiven for wishing, in all charity, that they might "die laughing," before they attained their ambition to rise in society.

Such expressions as "He done it," "I seen it,"
"Them things," "You was," are heard on every

side. "Drank" and "drunk" are constantly misused. "Like" is a frequent substitute for "as if," and "feel badly" is used, apparently with meticulous care, when "feel bad" is better English. Why do some writers use the Scots law term proven when they invariably mean to convey the sense of the English word proved? Why employ such a form as "goes on to say" when "says" is just as good, if not infinitely better? Why say, "Mr. Brown went on to say ... " when one means "Mr. Brown continued ..."? Why in the world prefer to talk of fight'n and shoot'n or of fish'n and hunt'n, when by carefully enunciating the final syllable of these words, one can overcome one of the worst phases of slovenliness in speech?

Efforts to correct errors in speech and writing have frequently been made. Book after book has been written, printed, and widely circulated. Error after error has been pointed out; ridicule even has been used to check the tide of slipshod slush which passes among some people as English speech. Good English is an art and not a science. It is the result of practise rather than precept. Little harm, if any, is done by refreshing the minds of writers and speakers and, in this friendly way trying to correct their mistakes as well as our own. We need to be reminded of, rather than chided for, our lapses in the use of our mother tongue, and every effort made that leads us away from the ill-kempt, sloppy, and tatterdemalion unloveliness of worka-day English is deserving of hearty support.

It is true that a large number of persons claim that there is no need to use care in the choice of the words we speak—those who would rather be damned with Shakespeare and Milton than saved by the rules of Doctor Syntax. But the mere fact that one understands what another means is not all that is necessary. It is a fact that the failure to correctly interpret the meaning of words lies at the bottom of many of the cases that perplex our Judiciary. For this reason alone, if for no other, it is the duty of every educated man and woman to write or to say in clear, unmistakable terms what they have in

mind.

Recently, a correspondent, writing to a morning paper, asked: "Is there a rule in English

which says that a verb must agree in number with the noun immediately preceding it, whether or not that noun acts as subject to the sentence?" To this question he received the answer, "No." But the fact remains that the rule is—The verb must agree with the nominative which is placed nearest to it, whether this be singular or plural; as, Neither the servants nor the master is respected; Neither the master nor the servants are respected. Casar non supra grammaticos!

A company of manufacturers, famous for the quality of the silks which they recently offered for sale, referred in one of their advertisements to "the exploiting and selling of any worthy product." The verb exploit is commonly used in a derogatory sense. To exploit is often "to utilize or employ in selfish schemes for one's own advantage without regard to the right or rights of another." It is, therefore, a term that should not be associated with any worthy act or cause. An unprincipled dealer may be said to exploit

merchandise of inferior quality.

Of a recently launched literary review, the editor wrote that his periodical would have "no political or literary policy," and continued: "Its purpose will be to set every significant book against its literary background, place it, and point out its strength and weaknesses. Its reviewers will praise whenever possible, and condemn when necessary, but neither puff nor sneer." One might well ask what the editor of this publication thinks the word "policy" means? A policy is "a course of action." Can it be possible that the writer thought it irrevocably associated with the "puff and sneer"? The purpose of the editor is unquestionably his policy.

A corporation formed for the purpose of supplying advertising service furnished one of its customers with a catch-line reading, "Is Your Data Ready?" When attention was directed to the violation of the rule that a verb must agree with its subject in person and number, and that the line should read, "Are Your Data Ready?" the following reply was made: "This matter had been considered by our Production Department prior to the appearance of the advertisement. We decided, however, that the head-line, 'Is Your Data Ready?'

though rhetorically [?] incorrect, is the way that the word 'data' is popularly accepted—as singular. We, therefore, decided to sacrifice rhetoric to prevent the head-line from looking strange." This reply displays almost as much ignorance as the original—"We decided that the head-line . . . is the way that the word data is popularly accepted—as singular." Was any other sentence as fearfully and wonderfully cast? Rhetoric is confused with grammar pure and simple.

Alas, for the reputation of a corporation that permits errors to be supplied by its Production Department under the pretext that "data is popularly accepted—as singular"—a pretext without the least foundation in fact! In some of the fields of human activity there are persons who would be better fitted to wield the shears and the paste-brush than the pen-men and women of assurance but of no literary taste or gift-who persistently violate the canons of good English, making use of solecisms that offend the educated ear. The stage is not to be excepted. Of a recent play the dramatic critic of a New York newspaper wrote: "The author's dialogue is so crude that he should have kept his dictionary instead of giving it to Anna in the first act. And while he was about it, a little perusal of an English grammar also would have helped the play."

And another critic in another paper wrote: "If the author had taken only a little trouble with the dictionary instead of attributing the search for knowledge altogether to his heroine the piece might not have been the most illiterate of the year. Indeed, its ignorance was unnecessary."

In some circles, to write or to speak good English is to be counted a pedant. In these days when the fairly well read find it difficult to break away from traditional misuse, convention and conservatism have their places in the language, but is there anything more offensive to the ear accustomed to good English than, "Had you have gone?" for "Had you gone?"; "He had used to spend" instead of "He used to spend," or "He had been accustomed to spend"; "Do not let us" for "Let us not"; "sort of" for "as it were." Recently, an eminent counsel cross-examining a witness

asked: "Had you a light with you?" to elicit

the reply, "No, I didn't."

Teachers of English admit that, notwith-standing the eternal vigilance they exercise, the results of their labors are most discouraging. This, they claim, is in large measure due to our environment. Improvement of speech, if it is to be effective, must, like charity, begin in the home; for the home, not the newspaper or the book, not the school or college, is the true source of good English—the others are valued aids in attaining perfect diction. Just as it is in the home that speech-pollution begins, it is there, the teachers claim, that it must be checked.

Those who are familiar with the doings of the college campus tell us that tradition requires one never to use correct English if slang can be found to serve the purpose in hand. Every undergraduate has a nickname, and he retaliates by nicknaming every object, act, and relation in the universe. The nearest approach to his language is the jargon in which the newspapers report a baseball game. It would be as bad form for him to use good English

as it is to be a "grind."

The demand that everything be brought to a common level is partly responsible for this. When the average man speaks incorrectly, the opinion that correct speech is an affectation gains ground, and when, in the bustle and haste of American life, correct speech and pure pronunciation attract attention, there is among the people a tendency to discount it as an attempt to rise above one's associates. The man who makes use of it is not infrequently charged with trying to impress himself upon his associates at more than his face value. He is thought to be an aspirant for social honors, an ambition that to the average American is almost the lowest depth to which a man can sink. But none of these feelings is created when an American associates with an Englishman. The Englishman is conceded the right to speak correctly, as if that were an inherent part of his nature. Why? Perhaps because there are some of us who associate correct English with snobbery; yet opportunity, advancement, and prestige await those who speak correctly and carry themselves with address.

The man who trims his words by imperfect utterance, and clips their final syllables, thereby tacitly admits his preference for the vulgar tongue. We have evidence on every side that there is room for improvement in the present-day usage of English speech, not merely among citizens of alien tongue, but among men and women of American and British birth and breeding. Slang and bad grammar may have charm of their own, but they are not easy to understand. If slang, prattle, and affected or downight ignorance are to be allowed to do as they please with the formal language, they will soon

lose both their charm and their novelty.

The glory of our speech is not to be found merely in the strength of its vocabulary and the richness of its phrase. To that glory belong as much the harmony of its sounds—the cadence of its intonation—and the intimate association of these sounds with the thought expressed. These we can attain by avoiding two forms of enunciation—the first, that effusive effervescence of speech that reminds one so forcibly of a sputtering soda-fountain, on the one hand, and, on the other, its antithesis, the pinchbeck method of delivery, so miserly in its utterance that it permits words only to ooze through pursed lips. Why is it that certain animals articulate with more feeling than do some human beings?

Good English is learned easily and rapidly by hearing it spoken and by reading it. A casual or an intimate knowledge of the science of grammar is not indispensable to any one who would speak the language correctly. It is desirable, of course, because through this knowledge one is able to dissect speech and to explain the relations of words to one another; but, to be good, English does not always have to conform to the rules codified by the grammarians. Much modern English that is strictly grammatical is starched English; so stiff that it has lost its inherent quality—that plasticity which makes our language one of the easiest into which to mold thought. But stiffness is not the only There is, in addition to this, a tendency to give to words values that they do not command. To what influence are we to trace the violations done to word values nowadays? Is it due to the contempt for classic learning that

F. H. V.

has manifested itself in some parts of the United States during the past twenty years? Or, is it because the world of letters has been overrun by hordes born to the shovel rather than the pen who, in the words of Pope, forget that

"there's nobody at home"?

No matter how sternly one may repress the misuse of English, it is impossible to correct all the errors that are sanctioned by the exceptions that prove the rule, and that are established by reputable usage, because these are now so firmly fixed that they have become accepted idioms. To acquire an accurate knowledge of these, it is necessary to maintain a continuous right-hand friendship with the dictionary, the practical value of which is immeasurable. By associating with persons who speak correctly, one learns almost imperceptibly to do the same thing. By reading the best books—the masterpieces of our tongue one familiarizes oneself with the forms that are accepted as standards. Children, who never give a thought to grammar when they speak, often speak excellent English. That there are some children who ill-use their mother tongue goes without saying. Evil communications still corrupt good grammar in the home or on the street, and they will continue to do so notwithstanding all the steps that may be taken to prevent them from so doing, but we can all help in stemming the tide of illiterate gibberish that seems now to be at the flood. Slovenly speech is as clearly an indication of slovenly thought as profanity is of a degraded mind. Therefore, let us heed the advice Shakespeare has given us-"Mend your speech lest it may mar your fortune."

FOR simplicity and purity of language, we have now substituted weak sophistry, covered by a redundancy of words, selected less for their import and application than their unusual and extraneous character; the excessive use of hyperbole; a general affectation of foreign terms; obsolete and vulgar phrases; unnatural metaphor. forced with perpetual effort; and a license. universally assumed, of creating new words with no other apparent object than to avoid the usual and appropriate term. All this extravagant folly is spreading rapidly through the land, producing an inevitable consequence—the corruption of the language under the singular description 'the diffusion of useful knowledge!'"

-Francis Vesey,
Decline of the English Language.

MEND YOUR SPEECH

A

able, -ible. What is the rule governing the use of these terminations? -able is used after verb-stems ending in a; -ible is a suffix of adjectives from Latin stems not a-stems. In some malformed modern words -able has the power of "full," as, veritable (full of truth), charitable (full of charity), profitable (full of profit), sociable (full of companionship), etc. Capable means "having the power of taking" instead of an object "that may be taken." Favorable, honorable, sensible are in use to-day in their original senses, (1) in favor, popular; (2) procuring honor; and (3) perceptible through the senses.

abortive. A common journalistic perversion for failing. That which is abortive is untimely in its birth. Thus, figuratively, anything brought out before maturity is abortive. But the word should not be used to mean failing. Abortive plans are plans that are coming to naught.

accident, injury. Accident is frequently used incorrectly for injury. An accident may be injurious, and injuries painful, but never say, "He suffered from a painful accident." An accident is a misfortune or a calamity; the word should never be used for wound or hurt.

accidental, incidental, casual, contingent. That which is accidental is opposed to what is designed or planned; that which is incidental is premeditated. Casual is occasional, that is, occurring at irregular intervals, and contingent is dependent upon an uncertain future event.

"The book fell accidentally into my hands."

- "The sermon, though excellent, contained incidental assertions which gave offense to many."
- "He slept that night in mean houses open to any casual wanderers."
- "Many a contingent event baffles man's knowledge."
- accord. Accord is to render as due, grant, allow; literally, it means to bring heart to heart; hence, to reconcile; reconcile oneself, agree, or agree to. Do not say, "The data he asked for were accorded him"; say, rather, "given to him." Compare DATIM.

11

acerbity, aerimony, asperity. Acrimony is from the Latin acrimonia, sharpness, the characteristic of peppers and mustard-seeds—a biting sharpness. In speech it denotes corrosiveness of feeling indicated by the bitterness of the words used. Many other words are similar in meaning, as acerbity, which is not as deep-seated as acrimony, and originally was associated with acts and laws. Bacon says: "The associated with acts and laws. Bacon says: "The acceptity of it deadens the execution of the law." Asperity is a roughness of surface, but indicates manner of treatment rather than disposition. The word borders on harshness. One may reprove another with asperity, as Dr. Samuel Johnson reproved Lord Chesterfield in the words: "I hope it is no very cynical asperity not to confess obligations where no benefit has been received." The differences of their meaning will be best seen from differences of their meaning will be best seen from the following examples of their use.

"A spell that can soften the acerbity of politi-cal warfare."—BEACONSFIELD.

"The acrimonies which the debate had kindled."—FROUDE.

"He demanded with much asperity what she meant."—DICKENS.

acquire, contract. One acquires a habit, does not contract it, but one may contract a cold or a debt.

et (verb). Do and make are nearly synonymous with act, but act is general in meaning. Make applies to that which is done by a particular contrivance, or for a particular end. We do our duty and make that which we need.

" Act in the living present."-Longfellow.

"If it were done when 'tis done, then 'twere well It were done quickly."—SHAKESPEARE.

"Thou shalt not make unto thee any graven

image."—Exodus.

actual fact. Tautological. Do not say, "It is an actual fact that President Wilson used the phrase 'Watchful waiting," for that which is a fact is an actuality, that which is actual exists in fact. Say, rather, "It is a fact that . . . !"

acute, keen, sharp. Acute is from the Latin acuere; to sharpen, from acus, needle. Several words resemble this closely in meaning. Keen approaches acute, but has a wider range of meaning. Sharp is applied to human faculties and is on a lower grade than acute. We speak of a sharp lad and of an acute intelligence.

"Who has a sense of wrong so acute as a generous boy?"—THACKERAY.

"Nature had given him a keen understanding."-MACAULAY.

"Curiosity has an appetite which is very sharp but very easily satisfied."—BURKE.

ad. A familiar locution in the publishing world condemned by some purists, but a commercial colloquialism that has come to stay. While permissible in conversation, it would be out of place in literature, where, if it were accepted, one might by analogy expect to find ed used for editorial.

- administer. A formal word, meaning, primarily, "to have the charge or direction of; also, to provide with; to supply, as something necessary; measure out, or inflict." One may say, "The priest administered the last sacrament to the dying man"; "The father administers chastisement to his unruly son"; but not, "The gunman died from blows administered by the policeman." One deals blows, does not administer them.
- adore, reverence, veneration, worship. Adore, from the Latin ad, to, and oro, speak, is, strictly speaking, a word of most solemn import, frequently put to frivolous uses. Reverence and revere, from the Latin reverentia, reverence or awe, differ from adore in that they imply fear arising from the consciousness of weakness and dependence. Between reverence and veneration, from the Latin veneror, venerate, there is the essential difference that the object of teneration is nearer to us than the object of reverence. Worship, from its Anglo-Saxon etymon weorth, worth, implies either the object that is worth or the worth itself. A child may like cherries and adore its mother, but it does not adore cherries though it likes its mother, and it need not be assumed that the young bride worships her shushand because she places burnt offerings before him three times a day.

"There is no end of his greatness. The most exalted creature he has made is only capable of adoring it. None but himself can comprehend

it."-ADDISON.

"All the King's servants, that were in the King's gate, bowed and reverenced Haman."—Esther.

"I venerate old age, and I love not the man who can look without emotion upon the sunset of life."—Longfellow.

"By reason man a Godhead can discern,
But how he should be worshiped can not learn."

—DRYDEN.

affliction, distress, grief, sorrow, trouble. An affliction is a grievous malady of mind or body; distress is more mental than physical. Trouble is a disturbance of the mind but is lighter than affliction or distress. Grief and sorrow are near synonyms, but grief is more demonstrative; sorrow, quiet and reserved.

"Round he cast his baleful eyes
That witnessed huge affliction and dismay."

--MILTON.

"This event filled him with the utmost distress and despondency."—Newman.

"Yet man is born unto trouble as the sparks fly upward."—Job.

"Sorrow is humble and dissolves in tears, Make not your Hecuba in fury rage, And show a ranting grief upon the stage."

—DRYDEN,

"When all hope of happiness is dead, grief breaks the heart, and life continues but a walking shadow until death completes the catastrophe in silence."—François Vidal.

- afraid, afeared, fearful, timid, timorous. Some purists declare arbitrarily that one should say "I fear" instead of "I am afraid," but none gives any reason for this. Afraid is a form of afeared, meaning "in a state of fear." Once a common literary word, Shakespeare having used it more than thirty times, but rare in literature since 1700, it has still a very wide colloquial use, in the forms afeard and 'feard, especially in the southern United States. Fearful is "full of fear." Timid and timorous are derived from the Latin timor, fear. Afraid may have either a physical or moral use, Fearful and timorous are applied only physically and personally. Timid is generally used in a moral sense.
 - "Men are afraid of breaking down where they are strongest, but are seldom afraid of their weaknesses."—HENRY WARD BEECHER.
 - "Why are ye fearful, O ye of little faith?"—Matthew.
 - "Bella was so timid of him."-DICKENS.
 - "I shall proceed with doubtful and timorous steps."—GIBBON.
- aftermath. A word persistently misused. Early July is the time of the math; that is, the first mowing of a meadow. The short grass—with a sufficiency of rain—will grow again, and later will come the second mow or aftermath. Not "the aftermath of love," unless a second marriage is involved; nor "the storm and its aftermath," unless the reference is to a reward reaped, or a penalty incurred, as the result of a family quarrel.
 - "No aftermath has the fragrance and the sweetness of the first crop."—Souther.
- age, old. Distinguish carefully between these words. In the Revised Version of the Bible, Luke viii, 42, it is said that the daughter of Jairus was "about twelve years of age." But in Mark v, 42, one reads that she was twelve years old. Why? The Authorized Verson reads "she was of the age of twelve years." which is undoubtedly better English, for is it not preferable to speak of a young girl as being a certain age than to speak of her as being old?
- agreeable, agreeably. Words often erroneously used in correspondence. Agreeable in this sense is a commercial colloquialism meaning, "being in accordance or conformity" as with some previous action. "Agreeable to your request, I have forwarded the goods"—correctly, this should be, "Agreeably with your request, etc.," meaning, "so as to be agreeable." "Agreeably with your instructions," not "agreeable." "Agreeably with your instructions," not "agreeable."
- alleron. In English a word of three syllables, a'le-ron (a as in "ale"); in French, pronounced as two, alle-ron'.
- allies. Should be pronounced a-lies' not al'leys.
- all over. Commonly misused in such phrases as, "The plague spread all over the country"; "the news of the armistice flashed all over the world." As all modifies the noun and not the prepositional

phrase in these sentences, the words should be transposed, "over all the country"; "over all the world." But the words are used in the correct order in the following: "We believe in the flag as the emblem of liberty, equality, and justice to all over whom it waves."

all right. is there any authority for the use of all

right as one word like already, or must it always be written all right?

The old English was alright. This form, however, is obsolete now. Already, now used as a solid word, was originally written all ready. Already and altogether have meanings that differ greatly from all ready and all together. Already means "beforehand"; all ready, means "everything is n a state of preparedness." Altogether means "completely"; all together means "every one fin union, or conionity." in union, or conjointly.

allude. This word is frequently misused, its true meaning being seldom realized. It means "to hint at playfully, refer to incidentally, or by suggestion," not merely "to mention, speak of, or refer to." To allude to a thing is to speak of it playfully (from the Latin ludere, to play), without direct reference. But, in general, the word is used in a sense opposed to this. One who loses an article may advertise his loss in the morning paper. The finder, in replying to the advertisement, is almost certain to say, "The package alluded to in your advertisement..." although no allusion has been made. The form referred to is a better one to use.

allusion, illusion. An allusion is a playful or indirect reference to something without definite mention of it. An illusion is a mental image which when compared with the real object represented by it has a deceptive character. It is a false perception.

"The great art of a writer shows itself in the choice of pleasing allusions . . . taken from the beautiful works of Nature."—The Spectator,

No. 421.

"Illusion consists either in perceiving a totally wrong object in place of the right one. ... or in investing the right object with the wrong attributes."—GURNEY, Phantasms.

almost never. An awkward phrase; say, rather, "very seldom."

already. See under ALL RIGHT.

also. A small word frequently misplaced. See Matthew x, in the Revised Version of the Bible, and the list of the names of the Apostles which ends, 'and Judas Iscariot, who also betrayed him (verse 4). From this one who does not know the theres 4). From this one who does not know the facts is free to deduce that Christ was betrayed by all his Apostles including "Judas Iscariot, who also betrayed him." The sentence should have ended, "And Judas Iscariot also, who betrayed him." In II Corinthians xi, 18, of the same version, one may read: "Seeing that many glory after the flesh, I will glory also," which means that the Apostle will glory in addition to doing something

else, whereas the intention is clearly, "I also will glory." Again in the 21st verse: "Whereinsoever any is bold, I am bold also." Here the sentence should be transposed to read, "I also am

- alternation. A word occasionally misused to convey the sense of an unbroken series, but alternation is "reciprocal succession," or "succession of the numbers of two series in alternate orders," the occurrence of two things in turn "; as, the alternation of day and night, the alternation of toil and leisure.
- alternative. A choice between two, but often used of a greater number, and sometimes incorrectly in the phrase, "Which of two alternatives." in the phrase, "Which of two diternatives." Correctly speaking of two things, we may refer to one as the alternative. Two alternatives implies four objects. Avoid the Gladstonian locution (Oxford Essays, p. 26, 1857): "My decided preference is for the fourth and last of these alternatives." Bear in mind that this word means one choice out of two things, courses, etc. To speak of being "forced to choose between alternatives" is to speak correctly.

altogether. See under ALL RIGHT.

- amaze, astonish. One is amazed who is confounded or bewildered with surprize, wonder, or sudden fear. A father is amazed at his son's conduct when it proves to be different from what was expected. He who_isis_astonished is affected with a strongly disturbing confusion or emotion in the mind, as "The people were astonished at his doctrine."
- angry at you. One may be angry at an outrage, not at a brother, but with him. "If you don't quit teasing me, I'll be angry at you," is a form of expression very common to certain localities where English is more forcible than correct. Angry with a person, at a thing.
 - anonymous, unanimous. Anonymous is not to be confused with unanimous. An anonymous production is one of unknown authorship. Unanimous denotes "sharing the same views or sentiments; expressing agreement, as of opinion on the part of a number of persons; as, the decision of the jury was unanimous."

Anon., when used after a quotation, is not, as some persons suppose, the name of an author, but a contraction of the word anonymous, used to indicate the fact that the name of the author is unknown.

an't I, aren't I. The first is a contraction of "Am not I"; the second of "Are not." Is there any authority for the use of "Are I"? There is not. Only "Am I" is the correct form.

Aren't is used for "Are not" when the subject follows, as, "Aren't you?" "Aren't they?" The best conversational usage contracts the verb when the subject precedes: "We're not"; "You're not," etc.

In England the phrase "Aren't I" is erroneously used for "Am I not," possibly through thought-

lessness arising out of a confusion of tenses. No educated person says "Are I?" or "I are," but "An't I?"—strictly, "A'n't I." the colloquial contraction of "Am not I,"—frequently heard and not infrequently misspelled. Here the verb must agree with its subject.

appreciate, enjoy. We appreciate a gift or our opportunities. One may enjoy a fortune or a good meal. The hungry man appreciated the invitation

to dinner, and enjoyed the food supplied.

are. What is meant when one says, "The quiet and beautiful seclusion of this nook are described"? Is the plural verb correct? It is, if the words "quiet" and "seclusion" are both nouns indicating two different features of the nook described, but if so, the article the should be repeated—"The quiet and the beautiful seclusion of the nook are described." If, however, the words "quiet" and "beautiful "are merely connected adjectives modifying the noun seclusion, the verb used should be in the singular. In some cases are is used as a singular or as a plural according to the context—"You are a wonderful woman!" (Singular). "Are you all there?": (Plural.)

asperity. See ACRIMONY.

assail, assault. See ATTACK.

assemble, meet. The word assemble connotes the gathering together of more persons than two. In the sentence, "Two of the members are assembled in the hall, the word assembled implies that more members are expected, and that the two present are carrying out the assembling which other members will ultimately complete, but the word is redundant. "Two of the members are in the hall" is all that need be said.

astonish. See AMAZE.

ate. Pronounced et; sometimes misused for eaten; Not "My breakfast was ate (but eaten) in a hurry," but one may say, "I ate my breakfast in a hurry,"—ate up. Omit up except when used figuratively, for one actually eats down. But, "the extravagances of his wife ate up his resources."

atone for, explate. Both terms indicate reparation for offense, but atone is general, whereas expiate is particular. One atones for a fault by any form of suffering. Another expiates a crime by suffering only a legal punishment. Atone signifies "to be at one with." At one, for "reconciled," is as old as Robert Mannyng. "Make an onement with God," "set at onement," are expressions of the sixteenth century. One who atones is one who is at peace, or good friends with his associates. To expiate is to "make amends for by suffering or reparation," as, "the criminal expiated his crime on the scaffold."

atrocious, wicked. These words are not synonymous. The murderer who dismembered the body of his victim committed an atrocious crime. The boy who stole the apples, though following the impulses of his nature, was guilty of a wicked act.

attack, assail, assault. To attack is to make an ap-

proach toward, in order to do violence to the person. To assail or to assault is to make a sudden impetuous attack. The reputations of public men are often wantonly attacked in the press at election time; the men are assailed in every direction by murmurs and complaints, by the discontented electors, and might be subject to assault but for fear of arrest and imprisonment.

at that. A cant phrase condemned by Gould as little removed from slang, but used by everybody. He cites "a very carefully edited New York newspaper" whose editor said, "It is easy to say now that inspection of the grounds in the dark by one man, and an old man at that, was a dangerous

practise."

Gould continues: "Such an expression might be expected from an uneducated person. It is not only vulgar; it is, also, in a strictly philological sense, unintelligible. The writer or speaker means, besides, moreover, into the bargain, etc.; but 'at that,' except conventionally, means no such thing."

attire. Correctly used to-day for that which is worn or serves as dress or clothing. It is synonymous with garments, costumes, and, figuratively, means anything that adorns or dresses. Properly this word means head-dress. Trench ("Select Glossary") points out that "attired with stars," in Milton's beautiful lines on "Time," is not clothed with stars, but crowned with them. See Revelations xii, 1, "Upon her head a crown of twelve stars." See also, "She tore her attire from her head and rent her golden hair." ("Seven Champions of Christendom," bk. ii, ch. 13.)

auditorium. The part of a public building, as a theater, occupied by the audience; also, any space so occupied. Distinguish from SPECTATORIUM,

which see.

aunt, ant. Distinguish between the pronunciations of these words. The word aunt is pronounced variously, the pronunciation differing with the region where the word is used. For instance, in Southern England it is pronounced with the a as in arm, whereas in the North of England, it has a less full sound, and the a is frequently given a pronunciation verging toward a in am, a sound which is given in both regions to the ain ant. This distinction has wide vogue in the United States and Canada.

au revoir for adieu. A French idiom used by persons parting one from another, with the expectation of meeting again soon. Though the French means, literally, "to see one again," the English idiom is "until we meet again." The French phrase is often thoughtlessly misused, as in, "Well, if I don't see you again, old man, au revoir!" The correct French word to use, if French must be used, is adieu, meaning "farewell," not au revoir.

auspicious, inauspicious. The word auspicious means "presaging or bestowing good fortune," and inauspicious, the very opposite. Occasions are auspicious or inauspicious. One should not apply the terms to weather. The weather may be clement or inclement; mild or stormy, or, as our

English friends sometimes colloquially term it. beastly or nasty.

aviation. This word is correctly pronounced a"via'shun not av"i-a'shun.

В

back. Pronounced bak, not bek, an affectation heard on both sides of the Atlantic.

Pronounced with the stress on the first syllable—bal'co-ny, not bal-co'ny. The o is obscure and has the same sound as o in "atom," not that of o in "go."

llet. Pronounced ba''le', not bal-let', which is the pronunciation of the word when it was written ballette.

banister. An undesirable corruption of baluster used to designate the railing at the side of a stair-case. Originally buluster was not applied to the rail, but to its bulging supports, from their sup-posed resemblance to the wild-pomegranate flower, whence the name came, through the Italian balaustra.

bargain. Pronounced bar'gen, not bar-gin'. Compare PORCELAIN.

rrage. Pronounced bar'ij in English but bar''razh' (both a's as in "bar" and z as in "azure") in French.

basilisk. Pronounced bas'i-lisk, not baz'i-lisk.

bas-relief. Pronounced bah"re-leef', not, as in England, bas"re-leef'. The word is from the French. bear, bee. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (1) and (2).

begin, commence. Begin is from the Anglo-Saxon beginnan, and although there is little difference in

beginnan, and although there is little difference in the meaning of these words, there is a slight difference in their application. We say, "The alphabet begins (not "commences") with the letter A." Also, "It is beginning (not "commencing") to rain." One overworked begins to feel tired. Commence is derived from the French commencer, and comes from the Latin com- (from cum), together, and initio, from in, into, and eo, go. It is frequently used where begin is more appropriate. A boy of foreign birth, on being rebuked for bullying a playmate, replied in defense that "he commenced to kick me." Begin is preferred before an infinitive. infinitive.

Commence generally applies, as a verb, directly to its object, which is something to be done, thus implying action. Its use leans toward pomp and parade, and, therefore, it is associated with formal functions and ceremonies, which are said to commence rather than to begin, the latter word being restricted to ordinary and familiar activities. Begin is the broader term of the two words, is the homelier, is English, is more familiar, and is shorter.

benefit, permit, remit. The rule regarding the formation of the past tense and past participle of verbs ending in -it is that words of one syllable,

or of more than one syllable with the accent on the last syllable (as re-mit'), double the "t," so permitted and remitted are correct; other words do not do so. In ben'e-fit, the accent falls on the first syllable; therefore, benefited is correct.

better part. Avoid as an objectionable colloquialism when used to mean "most of" Not "The boy at the better part of the pudding," for this implies that he left the worse part for others. Sub-

stitute most of.

blame. Sometimes used incorrectly, as in "Why blame it on me?" instead of "Why blame me for it?" To blame a fault on one is incorrect, for to blame is "to charge with a fault." We blame a motorman for an accident, not with it.

hoatswain. Pronounced bo'sn, a pronunciation

that has displaced the formal bot'swen.

This word expresses the idea of two things which are distinct, the one from the other, and should be used only with a noun and a verb in the plural number. Not "Five editions issued by both the Oxford and the Cambridge press," as George Washington Moon wrote, in "The Revisers English," p. 81, but "both the presses." The word is misused frequently in conversation. Not "They both resemble each other." where "both" is redundant, but "They resemble each other."

buoy. Pronounced boy, *not* bwoy, although formerly the last pronunciation had some vogue.

but that. Commonly used erroneously for that by persons who believe themselves to be letter perfect in grammar and lexicographical lore. Even Trench wrote "He never doubts but that he knows their intention."

but . . . what. A form of expression condemned as incorrect and unparsable, and commonly used for but . . . that, which see above. Although its incorrectness is established, it has received sanction of literary usage from Scott, Lytton, Hawthorne, and others. Avoid such a use as the following:

M.—" Couldn't you have used some of that money for hose?"

L.—"I suppose so, but I done the best what knew how."—New York Times, Jan. 24, 1903. I knew how.'

A little word that sometimes causes trouble. Being a preposition, it is sometimes placed at the being a preposition, it is sometimes piaced at the beginning of a sentence, and, governing the objective case, requires that this case shall be used, as in "By whom was the war won?" not "Who was the war won by?" But the rule has been frequently violated even by Shakespeare. See The Tempest, act. iii, sc. 3, and King John, act iv. sc. 2. Compare who, whom.

can, may. Do not say can when you mean may.

Not "Can I see you a moment," nor "Can I use the telephone," but "May I . . . do so."

can not. A term sometimes found written as one

word, sometimes as two words. The one-word form is incorrect, for can is a verb positive. In Old English, the negative form was ne can, similar to that still used in French, ne peut pas (can not). Try to inflect the solid-word form, writing it—I cannot, and you can not go far without being struck by the absurdity of the result. For example, "I cannot," "Thou cannotest," "He cannots"! Always write it can not. cannots"! Always write it can not.

casual. See ACCIDENTAL.

cattle, chough. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (3) and (4).

cold, coldly. Distinguish between these words.

feel cold, indicates that the person speaking is
cold; but, "I feel coldly about it," means that the speaker is indifferent or unenthusiastic regarding the matter under discussion.

collate. A term usually applied to and books, which when compared critically with a view to noting agreement or discrepancies, A term usually applied to manuscripts cooks, which when "compared critically, are said to be collated. Accounts may be said to be collated when gathered together for comparison, but compiled when the bills are made out.

collective noun. This noun is sometimes looked upon as a plural, and whenever so considered a verb in the plural should be used. Whenever it is con-sidered as a unit, a verb in the singular should be used. For example, in the sentence, "There is one class of bills that have been introduced that are a menace to our interests," is should be substituted for "are." By inversion the sentence would read: "Of bills that have been introduced there is one class that is a menace to our interests." It will thus be seen that the antecedent of the second "that" is "class," and, hence, the singular form of the verb should be used.

Whether the use of the plural verb in the sentence "The House Committee announce" is or is not correct depends upon the sense in which the word "committee" is used. If it is used distributively the verb in the plural is correct, the intention being to convey the idea that all the individual members of the committee separately announce the matter, but if the committee is regarded as a unit, that is, collectively, the singular form of the verb is required.

form of the verb is required.

In the sentence, "Israel is gathering to their long-forsaken home," its should be substituted for "their."

As regards the verb to use with the phrase, "The majority of people," both "the majority was" and "the majority were" are right, but the first considers "the majority" as a collective unit, whereas the second considers "majority" as

a distributive consisting of separate units.

The correct collective noun to use in differentiating a collection, cluster, group, or crowd has frequently caused disputes. The wide range of terms applied to birds, beasts, and fishes may be seen from the following: (1) A sleuth of bears; (2) A swarm of bees; (3) A herd or bunch of cattle; (4) A clattering of choughs; (5) A trip of dottrell; (6) A flight of doves or swallows; (7) A gang of elk; (8) A plump of wild fowl; (9) A skulk of foxes; (10) A flock of geese; (11) A brood of grouse; (12) A cast of hawks; (13) A stege of herons; (14) A shoal of herrings; (15) A sounder of hogs; (16) A pride of lions; (17) A troop of monkeys; (18) A watch of nightingales; (19) A drove of oxen; (20) A covey of partridges; (21) A muster of peacocks; (22) A nide of pheasants; (23) A stand of plovers; (24) A bevy of qualis; (25) A building of rooks; (26) A wisp of snipe; (27) A shoal of sharks; (28) A herd of swine; (29) A pod or school of whales; (30) A pack of wolves. (30) A pack of wolves.

commence. See BEGIN.

communiqué. Pronounce this kom''mu''ni''ke' (e as in "prey" and qu as in "quay"), not, as frequently pronounced by persons who associate the word with unique and ignore the accent, kom'yu-neek, nor kom'vu-ni-kwev. Compare QUESTIONNAIRE.

company, firm. Two words that may be used with verbs in the singular or the plural, depending on the context. In the sentence, "This firm has announced its dividend," this is distinctly singular. Not "this firm have," but one may say, "the firm have," and "the company have," when one refers to the different members of a firm or of a company in the company have, "when one refers to the different members of a firm or of a company have,"

distributively. See COLLECTIVE NOUN.

confiscate. A word that should always be applied to concrete not to abstract terms. The teacher may confiscate the pupil's pocket-knife because he whittled away at his desk. Formerly, one might confiscate slaves as property; to-day, no one speaks of confiscating a child, inasmuch as confiscation designates "the appropriation of private property as forfeited to the public use or treasury, especially because of the wrong-doing of the owner." By certain State laws, a cow, a horse, or any other animal that has strayed upon the public domain and damaged it, may be confiscated, after the stray animal has been impounded and the impoundage fee has not been paid by the owner.

connectives. These are the little words that are indispensable to us in the forming of our sentences correctly. Avoid "help choose," "help get," "help move." The dropping of to in such con-"help move." The dropping of to in such constructions as these has become common in English. Joseph Conrad ("The Secret Agent." p. 11) writes:

"Put to help wash the dishes." No one who aims to write good English would write, "hope get," try get, "want get." He would write, "help to wash the dishes."; "Hope to get an increase of salary"; "Try to get money"; "Want to get ahead." Avoid such locutions as, "come Tuesday"; "stay dinner"; "help pay for the work." Here substitute, "Come on Tuesday"; "stay to dinner"; "help to pay for the work." Have substitute, "Come on Tuesday"; "stay to dinner"; "help to pay for the work." In an editorial article referring to Viscount Haldane, which appeared in a London daily, the following sentence may be found: "And finally, he was let pass into private life." This is horrible; substitute, "he was left to pass..." or

ble; substitute, "he was left to pass . . . allowed to retire."

We still teach our children that a sentence must contain a subject and a predicate, yet an offense of modern journalism is the writing of incomplete Here is a sentence of the kind: long ribbon of khaki wound its way through the narrow lane of interminable length. The men footsore and weary. And the flies. And the dust. But cheerful, notwithstanding. At last the river came in sight. But the ford marked on the map. None.

Why perpetrate such slovenly English? Undoubtedly, "The men were footsore and weary, tormented by the flies, and choked by the dust, but they were cheerful notwithstanding all. The river came into sight, but the ford marked on the map

ands not there.

consensus of opinion. Sometimes condemned as un-justifiable tautology but accepted as standard Institute the control of the control opinion it certainly connotes unanimity. While the phrase may have been condemned by some purists as apparently tautological, consensus of opinion is good English; there may be consensus of evidence, force, function, opinion, thought, etc.

See INFECTIOUS. contagious. contingent. See ACCIDENTAL.

See ACQUIRE. contract.

covey. Not to be confused with convoy. A covey is a flock of quall or partridges, a convoy is an armed guard assigned to protect persons or goods in an unfriendly territory. Not as recently printed in a daily paper—"Birds not plentiful; long-continued drought thinned out the convoys.

cuckoo. Recent slang, reviving an old English use of the word, for a blockhead; simpleton; fool. Avoid it as vulgar and incorrect, for, in view of the labor-saving habits of the bird, the cuckoo

is no fool.

D

dahlia. Pronounce this word dah'lia or day'lia.

The difference of pronunciation is a national characteristic. In the United States the first is used; in Great Britain, the second. The word, being derived from Dahl, the name of a Swedish botanist, is correctly pronounced with a broad a in the first syllable.

dandy. A word derived from the Old French, dandin, which means "simpleton," "ninny," dandy is a contraction of dandiprat (originally spelled dandiprat), "an insignificant or contemptible fellow," and should not be used to indicate some praiseworthy quality. Avoid such expressions as "a dandy hat"; "dandy time": say, rather, "a pretty hat," "an enjoyable time."

data (plural). A word almost always used in the plural; A word amost aways used in the plural; hence, it is frequently misused for datum (singular), something given (as facts, records, etc.). Say, "We had not sufficient data (not "datums") to determine the cost"; "Are your "data ready?" not "Is your data ready?" but "Is the datum ready." See MEMORANDUM and INTEO-DUCTORY, pp. 5-6.

de facto; de jure. Two Latin phrases. The first means "actually or really existing or done," and is to be distinguished from de jure, which means "by right of law, rightfully, or legally."

Duxe. A much overworked French phrase meaning "of luxurious or superfine quality." Applied originally to books printed and bound in exquisite taste, the term is losing its force by the very diversity of its modern application, which ranges from railway-trains to cabaret service.

mobilized. Place the main stress on the second syllable, de-mo'bil-ized, and utter the whole word. demobilized.

Avoid demobbed as a vulgarism.

demonstrate. Pronounced dem'onstrate, not de-mon'strate. Both pronunciations occur in Shakenot despeare, but the first is preferred in the United the second is standard in the United Kingdom.

detestation. See HATRED.

ifferent. In writing about this word, most purits have imagined vain things. Different to and different from are both in good usage, the first in England, the second in the United States. Different from dates from 1590 (Shakespeare, "Comedy of Errors"); different to, from Thomas Dekker, 1603; thereafter came the following: Different against, Heywood, 1624; different than, Digby, 1644: different with Mourmouth, 1649. Then different. different to revived by Fielding, 1737, who was followed by Goldsmith with different than in 1769. Different against and different with are obsolete. As to which of the other phrases to use, everything depends upon the context.

digest. The dictionaries recognize two pronunciations for this word, one for the noun, dai'jest, another for the verb, di-jest', but the modern tendency is to break down these distinctions, as has been done with the words cement and rise (noun and verb). The *i* in digest is the accented diphthongal *ai* as in "aisle," and not the unaccented *i* heard in digestion, which has the sound of *i* in habit. One may avoid mental indigestion (pronounced in-dijes'tchun) by reading The Literary Digest (dai'jest).

lemma. A situation in which a choice between alternatives is necessary. Therefore, avoid "al-ternative dilemma" as a pleonastic construction, which reference to the origins of these two words, in the Latin and the Greek, clearly shows. Thus, to speak of an "alternative dilemma" is the equivalent of speaking of an "alternative alternative, yet an eminent divine wrote to a merciless critic, "I have no desire to empale another on the dreadful horn of an alternative dilemma." See ALTERNATIVE.

discriminate. See INDIVIDUALIZE.

distress. See AFFLICTION.

diva. A word designating a female operatic singer of celebrity. It should be pronounced dee'va, not dai'va—the i as in "machine," not ai as in "aisle."

dive, plunge. Distinguish between these words. a plunge head foremost into water by running from a spring-board and with propulsion added on reaching the water"; a plunge is "a standing-dive made head-first from a firm take-off. free from spring.

done, did. Done must never be used for did. Avoid "I done it"; "That's what I done," and "I done that" as illiterate. Use did instead of done in

every one of these sentences.

don't. As a form of the third person singular, in the indicative mode, "don't" is erroneous. Not "She don't like him," but "She doesn't like him"; not "He don't care to go," but "He doesn't care to go," although "Don't," in the imperative mode, has been in use in English nearly two hundred and fifty years, purists still consider it a colloquial contraction, and "Do not" is preferred. In his first comedy, "Love in a Wood," the gallant William Wycherley introduced it with "Don't speak so loud" (act iii, sc. 2). It is widely used by novelists. loud" (act iii, sc. 2). It is widely used by novelists. Dickens employed it freely—the very frequency of its use is likely to place it on a higher plane, but the purists still stigmatize it.

dottrell, dove. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (5) and (6).

double negative. In English there is a rule that runs, "Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative: that is, they nullify each other." But this does not that is, they nullify each other." But this does not always apply. Says Campbell in his "Rhetoric" (p. 160): "Many terms and idioms may be common, which, nevertheless, have not the general sanction, no, nor even the sanction of those that use them." Nevertheless, double negatives should be shunned whenever a blunder is sensed in their use.

The double negative dates from Chaucer's time-"So lowely, ne so trewely yow serve Nyl non of 'hem as I shal til I sterve."

-Troylus and Cryseyde, lib. v, st. 25. Shakespeare and Roger Ascham both made use of it; the first, frequently, as in "Romeo and Juliet" (act iv, sc. 1),

"A sudden day of joy That thou expect'st not, nor I look'd not for."

"Give not me counsel; nor let no comforter delight mine ear."—Shakespeare, Much Ado About Nothing, act v, sc. 1.

The second, in "Toxophilus," where he makes use of the expression, "No, nor I think I never shall." Pope's "Epitaph of P. P.," the parish clerk, contains an example of this use in a derisive couplet from his pen:

"Do all we can, Death is a man Who never spareth none."

In the Saxon tongue this idea was carried often beyond the double to the triple, and even occasionally to the quadruple, negative. But in modern English expressions of this kind are almost entirely obsolete among the educated, though they are frequently heard in the conversation of the man in the street. The only occasion when a double or triple negative is permissible is when it is an independent repetition used to emphasize the negation; as

"He will never consent, not he, no, never, nor I neither!"

"No, not for an hour."—Galatians, ch. ii, v. 5. Avoid "I don't know nothing about it," as vulgar.

drink; drank. The present participle of drink is drinking; the imperfect or past tense of drink is drank, and the past participle is drunk. Say, "I have drunk," not "I have drank"; but "I drank," which is correct when the imperfect or past tense is intended.

E

educated. Is "People come here to get educated" grammatically perfect? People is commonly used of a large number of persons; persons of a small number of people. In the sentence quoted get is used colloquially to mean "become (what one was not before)," by ellipsis of a reflexive pronoun ("themselves"). Such use of get should be avoided. Say, rather, "People come here to get an education," or "be educated."

egoist, egoistic, egoistic, egoistic. Distinguish between these words. Egoistic has a wider scope than egotistic, but it includes the meaning of that word. Egotistic describes one given to or characterized by egotism, while egotism is the habit or practise of thinking or talking too much of oneself; self-exaltation. An egoist is one who advocates or practises egoism. He is egoistic who is characterized by inordinate regard for himself or by egoism, the doctrine that the supreme end of human conduct is the happiness of self, or the pursuit of self-interest. An egotist is one who abounds in egotism or who talks freely about himself.

egregious. Many persons think that the word egregious means "ridiculous, foolish, or ignorant." This may have been due to an ironical use of the word, which means literally, "out flock," that is, "eminent, excellent, renowned, remarkably good, significant, great." In "Cymbeline," Shakespeare wrote of "an Italian flend . . . egregious murtherer"; Milton of "egregious liars and impostors." Who shall say that Shakespeare did not mean a murderer above the common type, or that Milton did not refer to a notorious liar? On "egregious blunder," modern interpretation

On "egregious blunder," modern interpretation has put the meaning "gross or outrageous mistake," yet interpreted literally, an egregious blunder is an unusual blunder rather than an

outrageous one.

el or ie. The following lines elucidate correct usage:

When et and to both spell e
How can we tell which it shall be?
Here is a rule you may believe,
That never, never will deceive,
And all such troubles will relieve,
A simpler rule you can't perceive.
It is not made of many pieces,
To puzzle daughters, sons, or nices,
Yet with it all the trouble ceases.
After C, an E apply;
After other letters I.

-TUDOR JENKS.

elicit, illicit. Distinguish between these words. To elicit is to draw out, as by some attraction or inducement, bring to light; as, to elicit information by inquiry; elicit a reply. Illicit designates that which is forbidden by law; as, "The profiteers have reamed illicit gains."

elk. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (7).

encore. Not en'kor but on''kor'.

energy, force. Discriminate between these words.

Energy signifies the power of producing positive results. The idea of activity is associated with energy (Gr. energein, to operate inwardly); the idea of capability is connected with force. Work involves the expenditure of energy, actual or potential, of which the labor done is the measure. Work is necessarily done whenever a force acts upon a moving point in the direction of its motion, and may then be measured by the product of the force into the distance through which the point moves while it acts.

enjoy. See APPRECIATE.

especial, special. The distinction between these words is often a fine one. Especial singles out a quality or an object from others of the same kind; as, an especial charm. Special conveys the idea of having some particular or remarkable characteristic; as, a special announcement.

evacuated. Commonly misused of persons instead of places. Not "The wounded were kept in the barn until they could be conveniently evacuated." Substitute "it" for "they," for the barn was evacuated

not the wounded.

expect, hope, suspect. The word expect is very widely misused not only for think, believe, suppose, but also for suspect, and hope. Avoid, "I expect he will pass his examination, but I do not think he will." Here hope is meant. Expect is often confused with hope even by persons of education. A young man hopes to live many years; an old man expects to die in a few years. A farmer who is looking forward to a bountiful harvest will say, "I expect to have a good crop," while he really only hopes to have it.

To-day suspect invariably implies the imaginaa person or thing wrong or undesirable concerning a person or thing; so that, unless there is something wrong, the word should not be used. This idea, however, is due to the fact that suspect is also used of things with the sense of imagine or fancy (something) to be possible or likely. The use should not be applied to persons. One may suspect identity, poisoning, villainy. Used as a noun, suspect is applied to a suspicious character, one possibly guilty of crime, or a suspicious thing.

expiate. See ATONE.

exploiting. Avoid such expressions as "The exploiting of a worthy product." Products that are worthy need no exploiting. Worthy is said of persons, abstractions, or, rarely, of material things. To expect is to bring out for one's own advantage without regard to the rights of others; as, some capitalists exploit the people; some merchants exploit their goods by fatuous advertisements.

An offensive term when used to designate female. Such use is a survival of an old English practise now regarded with disfavor by careful speakers and writers.

speakers and writers.

In the following sentence female is appropriately used as an expression of contempt: "They are no ladies. The only word good enough for them is the word of opprobrium—females." The sex are of the feminine gender. But female is correctly used also as the correlative of male, whether the latter be expressed or not; as, "Statistics of population show that the excess of females to males is as 7 is to 4 in England to-day."

firm. See COMPANY...

flown. This word is the past participle of fly, but is occasionally misused as the past participle or the past tense of flow, of which flowed is both past participle and past tense: flow, flowing, flowed. parts of fly are flying, flown, and the past tense is flew.

Jean Ingelow wrote:

"So far the shallow flood had flown Beyond the accustomed leap of landing." -A Story of Doom.

foreigner. Pronounced for'in-er (i as in "pin"), not fo-rain'er.

forwardance. An erroneous substitute for forward-ing, used by persons who crave for novelty. The correct verbal substantive for the action of the verb forward is forwarding. Say, "We thank your for the prompt forwarding of the instrument," not forwardance.

fowl, fox. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (8) and (9).

fracas. A word sometimes misused. Not "He was wounded in the fracas"; say, rather, "... during the fracas," for he was wounded while it took place. A fracas (pronounced fra'ka' or, rarely, fray'kas) is a brawl, riot, disturbance, not a part of man's anatomy.

esh. This word in the sense of "green, inexperienced; hence, bold and lacking the sense of propriety; presumptuous; rude," although originally Old English, occurring in Shakespeare, has been preserved as modern American slang—an expressive but an underrable legation. fresh. expressive, but an undesirable locution. Avoid "Don't be so fresh"; "You fresh thing!" etc., as vulgarisms.

gape. Pronounce it to rime with ape, cape, nape, rape, tape, etc., not with cap, lap, map.

garage. Pronounce it ga-razh'—both a's as in "arm" and z as in "azure." The pronunciations gar'ij and gar'ej (e as in "they") are illiterate.

genuine. Pronounced jen'yu-in, not jen'yu-ine the final syllable of the word rimes with "pin," not with "pine."

get me. A vulgarism for understand. Not you get me?" but "Do you understand me?"

Pronounced jowr.

gibber, gibberish. Pronounced gib'er, gib'er-ish, not jib'er, jib'er-ish, a pronunciation frequently heard.

Although Webster records jib'er as the present usage of the United States, it is not supported by usage of the United States, it is not supported by contemporaries. This pronunciation is common in Southern England, while gib'er is heard more frequently from the Thames northward. It prevails in Scotland. The pronunciation jib'er-ish—based probably on the verb—also heard, is not recorded by the lexicographers.

"This gibberish (unintelligible or incoherent speech), which in the weakness of human understanding serves so well to palliate men's ignorance, and cover their errors, comes by familiar use amongst those of the same tribe to seem the most important part of language."—LOCKE, Essays on Human Understanding, vol. ii, c. 10.

rl. Pronounced to rime with "whirl." Not gal, goil, or gel, but gurl.

Ides. In colloquial English speech, these occur according to the rapidity with which words are spoken, and are in general undesirable. They are seldom or never heard in formal utterance, and careful enunciation eliminates them. Avoid canchew ("can't you"); dontcher ("don't you"), etc.

Give to the o in this word the sound it has in God. the word "not." Do not say gard or gawd. This simple, homely Anglo-Saxon word is not the ineffable name that some of our churchmen try

to make it.

goose, grouse. See COLLECTIVE NOUN (10) and (11), grief. See AFFLICTION.

Distinguish between these words. grits, Its, groats. Distinguish between these words. The plural grits is correctly used when the intention is to describe grain much like coarse corn-meal mush. *Groats* is used to designate hulled or crushed oats or wheat, or fragments of wheat larger than grits. Both words are correctly used with a verb in the plural, but in the cant of the grain trade they are used with a verb in the singular.

grouch, groucher; grouse, grouser. Recent colloquialisms for grumble and grumbler; the first two peculiar to the United States, the last two, to Great Britain: coined with no other apparent object

than to avoid the appropriate terms.

gunwale. Although this is still the usual spelling; the word is pronounced gun'nel by persons familiar with boating and nautical terms.

when used to mean a person or an individual, is vulgar. "Slick guy," "clever guy," "some guy," are indications of a debased mind.

H

hadn't ought. Erroneous for "ought not." "Who was it that described the Mason and Dixon line as the line that separates the people who say you all from those who say hadn't ought? "—BRYAN CALLAHAN in The Sun, New York, September 15, 1920. See YOU ALL.

hammer. Used to mean "subject to a tongue-lashing; find fault with; nag," a vulgarism for rail at, scold, which are to be preferred. It owes its origin to the figurative use of hammer, "to drive (into a person's head) by persistent effort"; as, to hammer common sense into the head of a dunce. See KNOCK.

has had, has been. Take care to use the right verb in the right place and so avoid Mrs. Crank's blunder. "I see Briggs has had his wife killed," she remarked to her work-weary spouse, only to elicit from him the reply, "Not a bad idea." She meant "I see Briggs's wife has been killed."

hatred, detestation. Hatred is a bitter aversion, usually actuated by a desire to injure, to weaken, or destroy its object. Thus, hate is intense and lasting. Detestation implies aversion caused by disapproval; hence, is intense dislike. To detest any one is to hate him intensely. These two words approach as nearly to synonyms as it is possible for words to do.

have got to. A locution frequently condemned where got is sometimes superfluous. We have to breathe, to sleep, to eat, and to do things generally, and these things we do willingly enough, but there are many things that we have got to do that are done unwillingly. We have got to do for one. The things that we have all got to do are not all pleasant things, yet we have got to do them or take the consequences.

Got is commonly supposed to imply "obtained." It is used properly when it has the sense of "acquired," "procured," or the like. It is frequently redundant, yet in some constructions is permissible. "The donkey has got long ears"; wrong, for he did nothing to acquire or procure them; but the grey-hound got the hare (which he was chasing)—caught, however, would be preferable. Yet how often do we hear parents impress an unpleasant duty upon their children in such a phrase as, "John, you've got to do your lessons," which is colloquial, if not vulgar.

hawk. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (12).

he, him. Use these words with care: "I knew that it was he," not him, following the rule that requires a noun or pronoun in the predicate, corresponding to the subject and meaning the same thing as the subject, to be in the nominative case. "She knew it to be him," not he, following the rule that if the infinitive of any copulative verb has a subject in the objective case the noun or pronoun following such infinitive must also be in the objective case.

hegira. Pronounced hej'i-ra, not he-jai'ra (ai as in aisle ").

hero, heroine, heroism. Pronounce the first, hee'ro; the second, her'o-in; the third, her'o-izm.

A drug-pronounced he-ro'in.

heron, herring, hog. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (12), (13), and (14).

hope. See EXPECT.

I. Not "Between you and I," but "... you and me." But, "Who will speak?" "I (will speak, understood)," not "Me will speak."

ea. Have persons of English birth the correct enunciation of this word when they pronounce it as if it were written idear, or is this mere affectation? It is an affectation not restricted to persons born in the United Kingdom. In New York City speech "r" is often inserted or added in words when none ought to be heard. The late Henry James, writing on the subject of cultivated speech, drew attention to the fact that "the very instructors of youth sometimes talk of California-roranges, of Cuba-r, of Atalanta-r in Calydon, and of the idea-r-of any intimation that their example in these respects may not be immaculate." In England on a wet day, one frequently hears, "Put your umbrella-r-up."

Pronounced i-lis'it, not il'i-sit. See ELICIT.

Illusion. See ALLUSION.

illustrate. Pronounced i-lus'trate in the United States, but il'us-trate in Great Britain.

imbecile. Pronounced im'be-sil, not im-be-sile'.

imbroglio. As the g is silent, pronounce it im-bro'lyo. inauspicious. See AUSPICIOUS.

incidental. See ACCIDENTAL.

individualize. This word should not be used for discriminate or particularize. One discriminates between persons or things. Avoid such constructions as, "When every line is of such high standard of excellence, it seems superfluous to individualize"; first, because that which is excellent excels in quality to a high degree; secondly, because individualize is more commonly associated with persons; particularize, with things. "The characteristics of a literary production individualize its author." "The peculiar properties of goods particularize, that is, indicate their qualities."

infectious, contagious. Terms commonly misused. An infectious disease is one communicated, as by contact or through the medium of air, water, or clothing. A contagious disease is one that is communicated from person to person by contact, direct or indirect. Whatever acts by contact, acts immediately by direct personal contact. Contagion, therefore, is correctly applied only to particular diseases. That which acts by infection acts radually and indirectly through the medium of a third body, as clothes, etc., when infected. Infection is all-embracing, and may be applied to every disease that is transmittable from one person to another. Diseases that are contagious or infectious are termed transmissible diseases.

génue. Not in'je-new, but as a French word pro-nounced correctly an"zhe"nu' (a as in "at," z as in "azure," e as in "prey," u as in "Dumas"). ingénue. The term in general designates a young woman who is artless, ingenuous, or innocent.

injury. See accident.

insignia. A word frequently used nowadays with a verb in the singular instead of in the plural. The correct singular is insigne; but insignia is errone-ously used as the singular with the plural form insignias, and may be found in the writings of Washington Irving, Wellington, and Mary Kingsley.

irony, sarcasm. Distinguish between these words. Irony is the saying of one thing, that the reverse may be understood. Derived from the Greek eironeia, which means dissimulation; irony is disguised satire and often censures by feigned approval or condemns by pretense of admiration. Irony is either mild or cutting. Sarcasm is a form of frony in which the speaker is actuated by enliney or scorn. Being derived from the Greek surkasmos, which means, literally, "a biting of the flesh," it is usually cutting and reproachful, and is a kind of personal allusion which is characterized by spite or ill will. Sarcasm is also "the contemptuous and derisive expression of uncongeniality with the character, conduct, belief, principles, or statements of a nother." of irony in which the speaker is actuated by enmity ments of another.

ĸ

keen. See ACUTE.

kick. Used to designate an act of violent objection;

a vulgarism for protest.

kike, kyke. An unpardonable vulgarism in the cant of the clothing trade. The word kike is an adaptation from the Scottish keek, which designates "One who peeps; especially in the clothing trade, a person engaged by a garment-maker to obtain the latest styles from a rival concern, that he may make up his goods in imitation, but for sale at a lower price." It is used to-day in a derogatory sense, indicating a low standard of honor.

mono. Pronounced kim'o-no by the Japanese, but ki-mo'no in the United States.

but ki-mo no in the constructions which allow the use of the expression "kind of," such as, "What kind of man is he?" but this should not be confused with the meaning "somewhat" or "rather," as in the sentence, "It looks kind of "rather," as in the sentence, "It looks kind of be confused with the meaning "somewhat" or "rather," as in the sentence, "It looks kind of good," a vulgarism for "... rather good." Not "He is kind of thred," but "... somewhat tired"; nor "I am kind of annoyed about it," but "... a little annoyed."

knock. Used as meaning "find fault with," a vulgarism for decry, defame. Compare HAMMER.

knocked up. In the United States, a cuphemism of the underworld for enceinte. In Great Britain, used commonly to mean fatigued, tired out, weary.

know. "I am glad to know you" is a colloquial formula for "I am glad to make your acquaintance." The word "know," in this sense, is defined as " to be thoroughly acquainted with," and one obviously can not be thoroughly acquainted with a person one meets for the first time. The form "I am glad to meet you" is;preferable.

know as. Illiterate in such a sentence as "I do not know as they will come to-day." Say, "I do not

know that . . . '

1

like as. This phrase means "in the same way as." but has been condemned as tautological, yet has ample literary support. "Like as a father pitieth his children, so the Lord pitieth them that fear him." Psalm ciii, 13: Coleridge, "She is now rising like as a sun, so shines she in the East."

like I do. A phrase so common that it may be doubted if protests against it are not made in vain. The full phrase was like as I do. Our forebears dropped the like and left us "as I do." Their sons evidently feel that they have an equal right, and so drop the as, but restore the like.

See LIKE AS.

lion. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (16).

listen! An inane admonition far too frequently used by persons speaking into telephone transmitters, to other persons holding receivers to their ears. What else is one who stands or sits with a receiver to one ear doing but listening?

love. Often loosely used as a synonym of like.

"I just love cake; it's awfully nice!" cried

Peggy, taking a large bite.

"You should not say you love cake," chided her mother. "Say you like it. And don't use awfully when you mean very; don't say nice when you mean good; now, dear, repeat it."

And Peggy heartlessly said: "I like cake; it is very good," then continued, "But, mother, it sounds exactly as if I were talking about bread."

M

magnificent. A term connoting grand or majestic qualities, not to be associated with anything reduced. Avoid the "magnificent reduction" of dry-goods-store advertising, as a contradiction in terms. That which is magnificent is superb; that which is reduced is depreciated or diminished in value. Say, rather, "marked reduction," for the excessive use of hyperbole, by exceeding truth, always misrepresents.

majority. See PLURALITY. make. See ACT (verb).

make up. An English idiom of wide meaning. One may make up a parcel, a prescription, or a deficiency; adjust a quarrel; compensate a loss; determine a course to follow; or concoct, as a story; lay out, as type into a page; prepare one's face for the public, or repair a hedge. The wide range of this idiom may be illustrated by the following depressions. domestic colloquy:

"May I ask if you have made up your mind to stay in?" asked the henpecked husband,

after a tiff.
"No," replied the determined wife, "I have

made up my face to go out.'

mankind. This noun should be used with a verb in the singular, not in the plural, "Mankind has (not have) suffered bitterly through the ambitions of the military class." But Shakespeare used both the singular and the plural. In "The Tempest" he wrote, "How beauteous mankinde is "(act v. sc. 1), and in "A Winter's Tale," "Should all despair That have revolted wives, the tenth of Mankind Would hang themselves" (act i, sc. 2).

ayonnaise. Pronounced may"o-naze in United States, but mah"yon"naze in France. mayonnaise.

meadow. See PASTURE.

memoranda. Some persons persistently use this as a singular and memorandas as the plural. Memorandum is the singular and memoranda, or memorandums, is the plural. "Take this memorandum to the manager, and these memoranda to the secre-Compare DATUM. tary.

minute. Distinguish between the pronunciations of the adjective and the noun. The adjective is pronounced my'nute; the noun min'tt. Not, "The my'nutes of a company's meetings;" but "the min'its.

mobilize. Correctly pronounced mo'bil-ize, not mob'i-lize.

monkey. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (17).

more and more. The position of adverbial phrases determines the sense in mind. In the sentence, "He more and more learned to appreciate the benefits of freedom," the emphasis is placed upon the increased learning, but in "He learned to appreciate more and more the benefits of freedom," the emphasis is upon the appreciation of freedom," the emphasis is upon the appreciation.

mutt. A vulgarism for dog, commonly used by persons who think less of their dogs than the dogs

do of them.

neither. Is the following correct? "Neither of you is old in spirit or otherwise." The word neither indicates "not the one or the other addressed." Therefore, "Neither . . . is" is good English.

The correct correlative to use with neither is nor, and not "or." "He pursued neither the course of a trained diplomat nor the diplomacy of an astute politician."

Nemesis. Pronounced nem'e-sis, not ne-mee'sis.

nephew. Pronounced nef'yu in the United States, but nev'yu in Great Britain.

Newfoundland Pronounced new"fund-land' by the inhabitants and in the United States, but new-found'land in Great Britain.

ew York. Pronounced correctly when the last word rimes with "cork." Noo Yark is a pro-

vincial abomination.

ce. A much-abused word that originally meant "foolish," "simple," "ignorant." Then it came to mean "particular," "fastidious," "finical," "foolishly hard to please." Now it has acquired the sense of "agreeable," "dainty," "pleasing," or "refined," and is applied indiscriminately to a pie, a sermon, a young man-in fact, to almost everything.

nightingale. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (18).

oblique. Pronounced ob-leek', not ob-like', or by analogy one might be justified in pronouncing

unique, yu-nike'.

obvious. Sometimes erroneously used for neces-sary, as, "In an industrial community, what is more obvious than to make children acquainted with modern industry." That which is obvious is "evident without reasoning or investigation, and that is not what is meant here. Substitute necessary as the better word to express the thought.

Pronounced ov-the only word in English in

which f is given the sound of v.

off. Pronounced of (o as in or, f as in fat), not orf.

Frequently mispronounced of-ten'. correctly No pronouncing dictionary sounds the t in

this word or in Christmas, or ostler.

Olympiad. Correctly, the interval of four years between two successive celebrations of the Olympic games. Of modern revivals, used erroneously to designate the games themselves.

one or more. What is the difference in meaning

between one or more and more than one?

One or more connotes the presence of one and the possibility of there being more than one present. More than one definitely indicates the presence

of a plural number.

only. The position of this little word has proved a pitfall for the unwary. We often hear such a phrase as, "I was only saying the other day," when the speaker really intended, "I was saying only the other day." A newspaper reports that "When bicycles were first introduced, men only rode on them," which is good English if the intention was to restrict man's activity. This represents were that me only red on the higycles. properly means that men only rode on the bicycles, that is, they did nothing else to or with them, such as clean or walk beside them, but the evident intention was to say that the bicycles were ridden

by men only and not by women. Thus, the clause should have read, "only men rode on them."

From Boston we learn:

Marie—"Well, dear, did you have a good month at the beach?" Maude—"Splendid. I was given seven engagement-rings, and only had to return three of them.'

But the young ladies of Boston do not all speak so when they have "to return only three" rings out of seven received.

Jack-I give my seat only to pretty girls.

Bella-Then we'll only take them from handsome men.

The point revolves around the use of the word only, and it would be better to put it in its proper place in each sentence:

Jack—I give my seat to only pretty girls.

Bella-Then we'll take them from only handsome men.

opponent. Pronounced o-po'nent, not op'po-nent.

other. Sometimes omitted where it is essential to the meaning of the words used. For example, "Pure thread silk hose—quality with which no stocking at a similar price car compare." The rule is that when an object is compared with different objects of the same kind, the fact must be indicated by the word other before the second term. But it must not be used when objects of different kinds are compared. In the sentence quoted the hose excepted is of necessity excluded through the use of the words "no stocking." But the intention was to say "no other stocking." A critic recently wrote, "This book is superior to any work on the subject that I have yet seen," but he intended to write, "This book is superior to any other work on the subject ... "for, how can a work be superior to itself? stocking at a similar price can compare." on the subject . . superior to itself?

In Mark iv: 31, one reads: "It is a grain of mustard-seed... which is less than all the seeds that be in the earth." If so, then the mustard-seed is less than itself, for it is included in "all the seeds."

overflown. An erroneous form: overflowed is correct. This verb is a compound formed of over and flow (which see above). In the following overflowed should have been used:

"The rapid stream had overflown its banks." -WILLIAM BLACK.

"The river rushing with a furious and fearful stream had overflown its banks."—ALFRED WILLS.

overly. Such expressions as "overly nice," "overly particular," are archaic or colloquial. Say, "over nice" or "too nice," "over particular." If one can be nice, another nicer, and a third nicest of all, then one may be "over nice."

or. See under Collective Noun (19).

pains. "To be at pains" does not mean "to find it difficult," for the phrase is synonymous with "to take pains," and means "to take trouble, or care, to make the effort, or the exertion on anything, or in accomplishing or attempting to accomplish something." In a postscript to "Our Mutual Friend," Dickens wrote: "I was at great pains to conceal exactly what I was at great pains to suggest." Here the author means that he was compelled "to take trouble," not that he "found it difficult," to do what he had in mind.

pajamas. The preferred spelling in the United States; pyjamas, the spelling used in England. In the transliteration of Oriental words, there is often little choice among several forms which have practically the same sound. Down to the middle of the nineteenth century, this word was spelled also paijamahs, pigammahs, peijammahs, piejammahs, piejammahs, piet there are some persons who contend that usage does not simplify spelling.

paradox. A statement seemingly absurd, so it is tautological when used as in the following:

"This may seem a paradox but it is nevertheless a fact."—JOHN STUART MILL.

"It is less paradoxica' than it may seem . . . "
—Sir Henry Holland.

To say that this or that statement "seems a paradox" is tantamount to saying it "seems a seeming absurdity," which is as absurd as Cicero's "clamorous silence."

particularize. See INDIVIDUALIZE.

partridge. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (20).

pasture, meadow. Discriminate carefully between these words. A pasture is a field used for grazing cattle. A meadow is a field producing grass which is mowed regularly for hay.

peacock. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (21).

perfected. On this word the stress is correctly placed on the first syllable, perfected, not perfected.

permit. See BENEFIT.

Persuade, advise. Distinguish between these words. Persuade carries with it the sense of conviction; advise, that of recommendation. An author may succeed in persuading a publisher of the merits of his work; but the publisher advises him to cut it down.

pheasant. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (22).

planist. Pronounced pi-an'ist or pee'a-nist, not pie'a-nist.

plck. Although defined "to irritate or tease with petty carping or fault-finding," pick in such phrases as "He picked at her," "Why pick on me?" is undesirable as bordering on the vulgar.

place, any place, no place, some place. To be used with great care. "I have met him places," writes Sunshine to Mrs. Elizabeth Thompson, writer of "Heart and Home Problems," in The

Altoona (Pa.) Times-Tribune. "If he loved you," Mrs. Thompson answers, "he would take you places. Never go places to meet a man." The use of place objectively, without a preposition, or even adverbially, is a provincialism common in parts of the United States; as, "She is always wanting to go places"; "Can't I go any place (anywhere)?" I must go some place (somewhere)"; "I can't find it any place." All such forms are solecisms and should be avoided.

plover. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (23).

plurality, majority. Distinguish between these words. A plurality is the greatest of more than two numbers whether it is or is not a majority of the whole. It is used in politics to mean the excess of the highest number of votes cast for any one candidate over the next highest number. A majority is the amount or number by which

one group of things exceeds another group.

one group of things exceeds another group

porcelain. Pronounced pors'lin or por'se-lane, not por'si-lin. Compare BARGAIN.

positively. In this word the stress should be put on the first syllable—pos'i-tive-ly, and not on the third, as is done frequently but erroneously in New York. Not pos-i-tive'ly.

practically. Practically means "through practical experience," or "so far as concerns practise." A word frequently misused, as the following sentences show.

"The Senator is practically at the point of death." Not "through practical experience," let us hope.

"The weather has been practically cold." Here "to all intents and purposes" is evidently

"We were practically insulted by the German press." Possibly, for it had ample time for practise.

- precedent, precedence. Discriminate carefully between these words. A precedent is an authoritative case, example, or instance; an established mode of procedure. Precedence is the act of preceding or going in advance of.
- prepare, make. Prepare, from the Latin præparo, is "to get beforehand" or "take steps for the purpose of providing." Make, from the Saxon macian, is "to put together with art." In English, one prepares a dinner, but does not make it. Avoid, "I told my wife to make dinner," and if you want peace in the family say, "I asked my wife to prepare dinner." One may make tea, but prepares dinner. Compare Acr.
- press. Usually construed as a singular, is sometimes used as a plural when plurality serves to express the thought. English is a virile language, and men will use it as best suits them to express their ideas. In "The Turkish press are unanimous in support, etc.," the writer considered the different members of the Turkish fourth estate distributively, and not collectively. Colton wrote, "The press is the foe of rhetoric," and Cowper:

"How shall I speak thee, or thy power address, Thou god of our idolatry, the Press?

Thou fountain at which drink the good and wise, Thou ever bubbling spring of endless lies.

presumptive, presumptuous. Distinguish carefully between these words. Presumptive means "giving rise to or founded on presumption, warranting inferences"; presumptuous, "unduly confident or bold; forward; impertinent." Not, as a British M. P. and ex-Food Controller confessed, "I once knew a young lady and was presumptive enough to take her to balls," but presumptuous.

promiscuous. Pronounced promis'cuous, not per'miscuous, which is an erroneous construction due inattention or ignorance. Promiscuous, in Latin promiscuus, from promiscere, to mingle, mix. signifies thoroughly mixed or mingled. A promiscuous audience is an audience consisting of all sorts and conditions of men and women.

proven. Commonly misused for *proved*, this word is a past participle used in Scottish law to indicate that according to the evidence (present) a person on trial is guilty (proven so) or not guilty (not proven so). A verdict of not proven has been held to indicate suspicion but want of proof of guilt. Proved indicates a past completed action; proven an action based on facts present.
Say, "He has proved himself a model employee,"

not "proven," for proved indicates that his past actions make him a model employee.

Proximity is said of being near. Close proximity, an idiom sometimes challenged, implies something closer than mere proximity, or nearness.

quall. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (24).

quality. A word sometimes misused on the assumption that it implies excellence or desirable traits; as, "a writer remarkable for his qualities and his defects." A quality is a characteristic, distinguished as good or bad. A person of excellent qualities is one of sound morals.

questionnaire. A word adopted into the English lan-guage from the French. Always spelled correctly with double n-questionnaire, not questionaire. Pronounced correctly kes"chun"nare', not kwes"chun'nare'. The correct English equivalent for this word is questionary, "a paper containing a series of questions bearing on some specific subject,"—a good enough word for any but those who cultivate an affectation for foreign words,

R

Distinguish between these rational, reasonable. words, for they are not synonymous. A rational woman is one who is able to exercise the faculty of reasoning—one mentally fit to reason. A reasonable woman is one governed by reason in acting or thinking—one whose powers of reasoning by deduction or induction are habitually exercised. A rational person may be unreasonable, but a reasonable person is generally rational.

re. This is not an abbreviation of "referring" and should not be used as such. In law, re designates an action or matter, and is from the Latin res, thing. Its use should be restricted to that profession. In the practise that some writers on commercial correspondence commend, of using the formula, "Re your letter of the 1st instant," claiming it to stand for "Referring to your letter, etc.," should be discouraged as not countenanced by reputable commercial practise.

relentless. Incapable of relenting, pitiless, as,

" Death is relentless, and will not be entreated.",

"Few things can be more terrific than the voice of relentless criticism."

"The storm beat upon the shore with relentless fury."

Notwithstanding the fact that the genius of language has put the stamp of approval upon this term, it is of incorrect formation. The suffix -less, meaning "without," can be employed correctly only with nouns. Familiarity makes relentless less obnoxious to the uncritical ear than the equally objectionable terms resistless and tireless. Changeless, pittless, homeless are correct constructions, but fadeless, which has recently been condemned as an illiterate creation of an irresponsible advertiser of dry-goods, under the idea that it is formed from fade (verb) and -less (suffix), has a respectable ancestry, dating from about 1300. Its first use in English literature has been traced to Benlowes, "Flowers which into fadeless colors flow," 1652. Modern English usage favors unfadable.

"Mr. Blank confesses to a reluctance in regard to (whatever the particular matter may be)." Interpreted strictly, does not the position of the preposition make reluctance the recipient of a confession rather than the thing confessed? Certainly, "Mr. Blank confesses a reluctance to" is English.

remit. See BENEFIT.

reserve, reticence. These words are not synonymous.

**Beserve* is the holding of oneself apart from others, the exercising of self-control or the restraining one's emotions, etc.; reticence is the habit of being reserved in speech. A reticent man need not be reserved in all things, although he may be so in speech.

reverence. See ADORE.

revue. A French word, of which the English equivalent is review, that means, among other things, "a retrospective survey or spectacle." The French word is pronounced re"vu" (e as in moment and u as in Dumas)—not rey'oo.

rook. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (25).

rule, ruler. Interchangeable words; but, in colloquial speech, rule indicates a foot rule, that is

to say, one marked off in inches and their subdivisions, and a ruler, a plain, unmarked implement for ruling lines. That the two words are interchangeable is due to the fact that an article that serves both purposes, being plain on one side and marked off in inches and their subdivisions on the other, is in common use in the United States, but the distinction formerly made still survives in such expressions as, "A two-foot rule," "A three-foot rule," etc., ruler being used for the implement by means of which one rules lines.

S

sacrifice. Sometimes used in the cant of the drygoods trade with enormous to describe a sale at unusually low prices. When so used, enormous sacrifice is hyperbolical, for a sacrifice is, in commerce, "a reduction in prices so great as to leave little or no profit, or involve a loss," and enormous is "excessive or extraordinary in amount or degree." Thus, when applied to goods offered for sale, to use enormous sacrifice is to express extravagant folly that may entice but does not deceive, and is, therefore, lacking in common sense.

same, similar. The word same should not be used in substitution for it, as is now done too frequently in commercial correspondence. If "the same" is correctly used, a noun is implied; as, "It is the same (referring to an illness) as he suffered from." Do not say, "Tell me what you wish, and the same (meaning it) will be attended to." Distinguish carefully between same and similar, for same is often used where similar is the proper word. One may eat similar food from the same bill of fare at luncheon and dinner, but not the same sweets. A gale blowing to-day with a velocity of fifty miles an hour is similar to, but is not the same, as the one that blew with a velocity of fifty miles are ago, although it has the same velocity. Avoid "The same identical thing itself" as an absurd or ignorant attempt at emphasis.

see! The iteration and reiteration of this little word, for emphasis, common with the man in the street, can not be too vigorously condemned.

"I went to the Hippodrome. See! And saw Houdini. See! He gave a wonderful show. See! "As a matter of course, for the Great Extricator always does. But why see! see!! see!!! when you saw him?"

Avoid also, "Do you see what I mean?" when your intention is to say, "Do you understand me?"

seen, saw. Seen should never be used for saw. "I saw him," not "I seen him"; but "I had seen him" is good English, when the intention is to express action prior to some other previous action.

severity, See ACRIMONY.

shall and will. To use these words correctly apply the rules given in the accompanying table:

shall

M	END	YO	UR	SPE	ECH	
and will.—Continued.						
1. Generally before the verb to be, or any other neuter verb. *"Shall" is also used as a simple future for the second and third persons when dependent on the action of an antecdent verb or clause; e.g., I will take care that you (or he) shall not come too late for the train. If I wish it, they shall do it.	7. A duty	6. Must, as a future	active		1. A simple future* 2. An uncertainty 3. A question	To Express
	should	shall shall	WIII	will	shall	In the First Person Use
	should	shall shall	Will	IIiw	will	In the, Second Person Use
	should	shall shall	WIII	IIIw	шж	In the Third Person Use
	7. You should (it is your duty to) be obedient.	6. He says I shall (must) go home	5. I will certainly call for you to-	4. I will (it is my intention to) send you something to-morrow. He will (i.e. it is his habit to) spend	1. I shall be there to-morrow. 2. Perhaps you will think of it.	Examples

2. Consequer doubt, etc., etc. Consequently after the words suppose, think, believe, hope, trust, apprehend, expect, perhaps, probability in.

7. Should, expressing a duty, is always used as a present tense (past should have).

shall and will .- Continued.

Bear in mind the following:

Will in the first person expresses (a) a determination, or (b) a promise.

(a) I will not go. = I have determined not to go.

(b) I will give it to you. = I promise to give it to you.

Will in the second person foretells: If you come at twelve o'clock you will find me at home.

Will in the second person, in questions, anticipates (a) a wish, or (b) an intention.

(a) (b) Will you go to-morrow? = Is it your wish or intention to go to-morrow?

Will in the third person foretells, generally implying an intention at the same time, when the nominative is a rational being.

He will come to-morrow, signifies (a) what is to take place, and (b) that it is the intention of the person mentioned to come.

I think it will snow to-day intimates what is probable to take place.

Will must never be used in questions with

nominative cases of the first person:

Will we come to-morrow? = Is it our intention or desire to come to-morrow? which is an absurd question.

Would is subject to the same rules as Will.

Would followed by that is frequently used (the nominative being expressed or understood) to express a wish:

Would that he had died before this disgrace befell him. = I wish that he had died before this disgrace befell him.

Would have, followed by an infinitive, signifies a desire to do or make:

I would have you think of these things. = I wish to make you think of these things.

Would is often used to express a custom:

He would often talk about these things. = It was his custom to talk of these things.

Shall in the first person foretells, simply ex-

pressing what is to take place:

I shall go to-morrow. Note that no probability or desire is expressed by shall.

Shall in the first person, in questions, asks permission:

Shall I read? = Do you wish me, or will you permit me, to read?

Shall in the second and third persons expresses (a) a promise, (b) a command, or (c) a threat:

(a) You shall have these books to-morrow. = I promise to let you have these books to-morrow. (b) Thou shalt not steal. = I command thee

not to steal. (a) (c) He shall be punished for this. = I threaten

or promise to punish him for this offense.

shall and will.—Continued.

Should is subject to the same rules as shall.

Should frequently expresses duty:

You should not do so. = It is your duty not to do so.

Should often signifies a plan:

I should not do so. = It would not be my plan to do so.

Should often expresses a supposition:

Should they not agree to the proposals, what must I do? = Suppose that it happen that they will not agree to the proposals, etc.

shark. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (27).

sharp. See ACUTE.

she. Distinguish carefully from her. "He knew that it was she," not her. "If you were she, would you go?" not "If you were her." Compare HE, HIM.

similar. See SAME.

depends entirely on the sense in which it is used. As a verb, meaning "to cast off, as dead tissue," it is pronounced sluf—u as in "but"; as a noun, it is pronounced slou—ou as in "out"—when the meaning is "a ditch, bog, or quagmire"; and slew, when a depression in a prairie is meant; but when "dead tissue" is intended, pronounce the noun in the same way as the verb—sluf. in the same way as the verb-sluf.

snipe. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (26).

See AFFLICTION.

sorry! A much overworked expression of regret, especially in England, where it is used not only by the shop-boy who drops a parcel in handing it to a customer, but also by the professional man's wife when she bumps into one accidentally. "I beg your pardon," "Pardon me," or "Excuse me," are preferable.

ort of. This phrase suggests in itself a muddle-headedness, or an indolent mind that refuses to grapple with its own conception—an indolence not extenuated by barefaced insinuation that pre-

extenuated by barefaced insinuation that precision of expression is unnecessary.

The phrase sort of is spreading daily, Its use instead of "rather" or "somewhat" should be avoided. Say, "She is rather weary, not "sort of weary"; "He is somewhat effeminate," rather than "sort of effeminate." Do not say, "A sort of box," if you mean "a box of special make." One may, however, separate different sorts of grain, or various sorts of merchandise. See KIND OF.

soup, drink or eat. Correct usage depends on the manner of service. If liquid food be taken from a spoon it is eaten with it (by its aid); but, if the same liquid food be served in a cup which is held to the lips it is drunk. Therefore, "Eat your soup" and "Drink you bouillon" are permissible under the conditions stated above.

spectatorium. A recently suggested word formed from the Latin spectare, "to look at, watch, see."

and -orium, denoting "place for." This new term is used to designate the part of a building such as a motion-picture theater, that is occupied by the persons who have come to see what is shown upon the screen. Compare Auditorium.

stratum. A bed or layer of rock or earth of which the plural is stratu or stratums and not as a morning paper, noted for the excellent quality of its English, recently printed it, stratus. Compare DATA, MEM-

ORANDA.

sucker. Not to be applied to persons, for such use to-day is stigmatized as slang by the dictionaries. Sir John Foster Fraser, the Scottish traveler and journalist, defines the American use of sucker as meaning "an ignorant fish that can be caught with the easiest bait." This definition is incorrect. In the vernacular of the United States a sucker is "an innocent victim of a designing and unscrupulous sharper"—not by any means an ignoramus, a greenhorn, or a booby. He is, besides, a creature of the remora type—a parasite or hanger-on: in fact, a sponger. This type is not exclusively American, however, for, according to Bishop Hall's "Chronicles" (1548), there were in England in Henry VI.'s time "Flatterers to the Kyng, suckers of his purse, and robbers of his subjects."

sure, surely. Distinguish carefully between these words. "I will surely be there if you are sure he will meet me." Avoid "Sure, I'll be there," as

an undesirable colloquialism.

suspect. See EXPECT.

swallow. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (6).

swank, swanker. Anglicisms recently imported; but not modern terms. They date from the early years of the last century, and are recorded in Thomas Batchelor's "Orthoepical Analysis of the English Language" (1809), as belonging to the dialect of Bedfordshire. In England, swank designates bombastic behavior or talk, accompanied by ostentatiousness of manner. A swanker is a pretentious person who strives to impress others that he is their superior or is something different from what he actually is; in the American vernacular, "a four-flusher."

swim. The parts of this verb are swim, swam or swum, swum, and swimming, but swam is occasionally used where swum should be. Not "He had swam a mile before help came," but ". had swum . . . "Whenever used with the verb "to have," "swum "not "swam" is correct. But one may say "He swam a mile from shore."

swine. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (28).

Т

tasteful, tasty. That which exhibits taste, beauty; harmony, or other excellence is tasteful; that which is savory, because it is appetizing and palatable, is tasty. The latter should never be applied to persons, decorations, or dress. A room may be tastefully furnished; a woman tastefully dressed, but neither; tastily so.

think for. Incorrectly used for "expect," or "suppose." Not "It's not as easy as you think for "; omit the for or substitute "suppose" for "think for."

timid, timorous. See AFRAID.

trouble. See AFFLICTION.

U

unanimous. See ANONYMOUS.

- unique. An adjective meaning "the only one of its kind," frequently misused for "odd," "rare," "unusual." Its meaning shows that it is incomparable. Sometimes used erroneously with most and very.
- United States. Construed as a singular or a plural according to the thought of the speaker or writer. The Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States justify this practise, but says Fiske, "From 1776 to 1789, the United States were a confederation. After 1789, it was a federal nation." According to many modern writers, it is correct to say, "The United States of America is facing unnatural conditions."

V

Tast. A word whose limits are those of the universe but which is frequently misapplied. Do not say "vast surprize" when your surprize is great; not "vast precision" when marked precision is what you mean. Let the despondency that wraps the distressed heroine of your scenario be deep, if you please, but not vast.

veneration. See ADORE.

- Very. Except where a participle is used as an adjective, it is generally conceded best to interpose an adverb between the participle and this word. Thus, "very greatly dissatisfied," "very much pleased," are preferred to "very dissatisfied," "very pleased." Although it may be better grammar to interpose an adverb, as "very much pleased," this use of very is accepted as good English and has been used for centuries.
- Teteran. Derived from the Latin veteranus, from vetus, meaning "old," this word is commonly misused in some parts of the United States in referring to soldiers who have fought in modern campaigns. Now a veteran is "one long trained or exercised in any service; one who has grown old in service; especially, an old soldier." But we frequently hear persons speak of the veterans of the World War, when they refer to the men who saw service in that war. Yet the majority of the men who took part in the World War were and are young men.

W

was. The erroneous use of the past tense for the present tense, when a speaker desires to state an existing fact, is very common. For example:

"Tell me, what was that building that we

saw on Chambers Street? "

"The truth was that Jim struck him first."

"Did you tell him you were Dolly's sister?"
"We were told that the Mississippi in its

"We were told that the Mississippi in its course ran South."

"We were told that the Temple of Isis stood on the island of Philæ."

on the island of Finae.

In all the foregoing cases, the italicized verb should be in the present tense.

were, was. Many speakers and writers disregard the rule that requires the subjunctive mood to be used when, in a conditional clause, the intention is to express doubt or denial. Some of them use the indicative mood instead. "If it is ..." and "If it was ..."; "Whether it is ..." and "Whether it was ..." are expressions heard every day. Other persons mix the subjunctive and the indicative without reason. See quotation in which were is right and was is wrong.

"If our standard of man's and woman's education were on a level, if it was the natural thing for an intellectual woman to give as much time to study as it is for an intellectual man..."

—MISS WEDGWOOD, Woman's Work, p. 269.

whale. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (29).

whereabouts. Does the word whereabouts take a verb in the singular or pfural? Is "His whereabouts is unknown" correct? Nowadays whereabouts, although plural in form, is commonly used as a singular. "Husband and wife disappeared; their whereabouts is a mystery." The singular form whereabout may be found in Snakespeare, Macbeth, act ii, scene 1, line 58—"For fear thy very stones prate of my whereabout."

who, whom. There is little doubt that the rule requiring the use of the objective case is breaking down.

The following sentences will serve to illustrate usage. "Who did you see?" Wrong; it should be "Whom did you see?" because whom is the object of the verb see. "Who is she?" Right, because who is the subject of the verb is. "Who are you embroidering that bag for?" Wrong; it should be "Whom are you..." or "For whom are you embroidering that bag." because the preposition for governs the objective case. Compare By.

wicked. See ATROCIOUS.

wolf. See under COLLECTIVE NOUN (30).

Worship. See ADORE.

- puts the stamp of culture upon the person who uses it. Never say yep, yeh, yah, yis, etc.—they are all vulgarisms.
- you. The practise, common among the ill-spoken, of forming plurals by adding s or se to this word can not be too severely condemned. No refined person says your or youse.
- South since the founding of Virginia. One says "you all" when one means "you all." Some contend the "all" is unnecessary, but it prevents confusion, and its use is justified. Some people—many thoughtless people—in the South say "you all" meaning one person. The educated people do not, nor did Shakespeare.

"I see you all are bent to set against me your merriment."—Midsummer Night's Dream.

act iii, scene 2.

"You all did see, that on the Lupercal I thrice presented him a kingly crown; Which he did thrice refuse.

You all did love him once, not without cause.

If you have tears, prepare to shed them now. You all do know this mantle! -Julius Cæsar, act iii, scene 2.

you was; was you? There are still some men and women who have not learned the simple rule of grammar that forbids the phrase "You was" and the interrogation "Was you?" "You were" and "Were you?" are correct.

You, the personal pronoun of the second person, plural, is used also in addressing a single person but with a plural construction; not "You is" and "You was," but "You are" and "You

You as a singular in "You was" attained wide use, even literary, in the eighteenth century, but is now considered illiterate, was having long since been superseded by were, and you is always used with the plural construction in direct address.

zengma. A figure in grammar in which an adjective or verb is made to modify or govern two nouns, with only one of which it is grammatically or logically connected: as, "the control and support which a father exercises over his family were withdrawn," where the verb exercises applies properly to the noun control and only by extension to the noun support; a figure to be avoided as not generally approved by grammarians. not generally approved by grammarians.

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